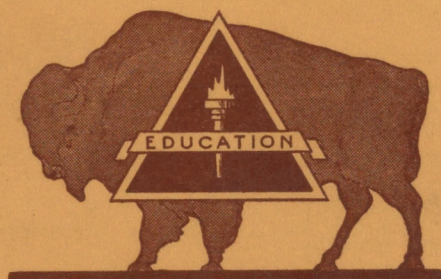


*The
University
of Manitoba*

FACULTY of EDUCATION



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FULL TIME

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Curriculum

Associate Professor Doris Baker { Elementary Methods
Child Development
Health Education and Guidance
Adolescent Psychology

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Educational Statistics
Methods of Research

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PART TIME

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Mr. Gissur Eliasson The Teaching of Art—Secondary

Miss Ella George The Teaching of Art—Elementary

Associate Professor R. W. Gibson .. The Teaching of Music—Secondary

Professor W. M. Hugill The Teaching of Latin

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Assistant Professor M. Richard The Teaching of French

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Assistant Professor C. H. Cardinal The Teaching of German

Assistant Professor K. Watson The Teaching of Home Economics

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Editorial

A year ago the Bulletin carried a reference to plans for a new building for the Faculty of Education. Visitors to the campus can now see the building under construction just west of the UMSU building on the north side of Matheson Road. The site is an excellent one.

The building will have seven classrooms, a library, eighteen study carrels, twelve graduate study rooms, two seminar rooms, six rooms equipped with tape recorders, an assembly room, student and staff lounges, and a room where students may work on the preparation of teaching aids. The building is being provided with air conditioning, and conduits are being installed throughout in order to provide for possible future use of closed-circuit television.

Tentative plans are underway for the official opening of the building in fall. Members of the Education Alumni Association will be pleased to hear that the plans included dedication of the library to Doctor D. S. Woods, the first Dean. Doctor Woods expressed his gratification thus: "Nothing could give me greater personal satisfaction. I am deeply thankful."

"LOOK FORWARD"

An address delivered to the Alumni Association
of the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, on February 10, 1962,
by Mr. R. L. Donald, B.A., M.Ed.

Mr. Chairman, Mr. President, Honoured Guests, Fellow Teachers
and Friends.

Introduction

I must confess at the beginning of this talk that I accepted the invitation to deliver this address with a certain degree of reluctance. In fact, when I was first approached back in the Fall of 1961 I took a week to deliberate and then phoned Mr. Thompson to say that I could not attempt the assignment this year. After a series of arguments and counter arguments, I was ultimately convinced by your very smooth talking chairman

- (1) that it was my duty,
- (2) that there were very cogent arguments in favour of this being the year that I should do it, and
- (3) that the responsibility need not be heavy because I would be able to farm out any research and fact-finding to a very competent staff in The Manitoba Teachers' Society office and thus reduce my obligation to practically nothing.

I am now willing to concede that although there were certain elements of truth in all of these arguments, there were also certain elements of untruth and I suspect that these were deliberately glossed over by your chairman. I would like to enlarge upon certain of these arguments to justify the selection of the topic and also to illustrate to you why I was so easily led down the garden path.

I. It was suggested to me that this was the year to use as a topic "Professional Development because the second National Conference on Education is being held this year in Montreal from March 4 to March 8 and the topic for one of the study groups is "The Professional Status of Teachers." It was suggested that this study group was of prime importance to the teaching profession and that by opening discussion on this topic some values might be gained by those attending this national conference and by others.

II. During the year 1962 the University of Manitoba is adding to its building program a new home for the Faculty of Education. Surely this is a belated recognition of the importance of professional training in a favourable atmosphere and a sign that we are not the completely forgotten Faculty of the University. In this connection I might say that we regret that it has not been possible to construct a building to house seven hundred students so that all teacher training might be given on the University campus but we are pleased that

in construction plans allowance has been made so that additions may be added at some time in the future if changes in the policies are made. I might also say in this connection that it is the sincere hope of the Education Alumni Association that some recognition may be made in the new building to the contribution of Dr. D. S. Woods to the development of this Faculty of the University. As you know, some arrangements are already being made so that our Association may contribute to this very worthy cause.

All of this does not gainsay the fact that I was highly honoured to be one of those selected to be asked to deliver this annual lecture and that I consider it a privilege and a challenge, and only trust that in this paper I may make some contribution to a clarification of many of the issues surrounding the topic.

I have said that the topic of this talk is "Professional Development" but you will notice that I have pinned a fancy title to it and called it "Look Forward." I would like to digress for a moment to explain how I happened to use the title.

First of all, I am told that a title should be compelling and intriguing—surely not "Professional Development?" Second—it should be short and carry some semblance to the subject of the talk. I considered a long list of titles such as "Proud To Be A Teacher," "The Time Is Now," "Sparks From The Anvil," "On The Target," and finally "Look Forward."

I am told that another important attribute of a good title is that it should gain the attention of the audience. This brings me to a little story that I would like to tell you. You would never believe the circumstances under which I first heard it—although some in the audience will know.

This story is about two farmers in the southern part of the United States. The first farmer wanted to buy a mule and knowing that the second farmer had one for sale he approached him in regard to acquiring it. Terms were agreed upon but before the sale was consummated the second farmer told the first, "Now, this here mule has to be treated just right. You have to be gentle with him. You mustn't force him—just talk to him—coax him and he'll do anything you want." With this admonition ringing in his ears, the first farmer took his mule home and the next day decided to put him to work. Gently he harnessed him up and talking quietly to him, coaxing him all the time, he tried and tried to get him started but to no avail. Finally, discouraged, he called the second farmer over and told him what he had done and with what little success. Looking around the yard the second farmer found a good stout club and standing back a pace or two he belted the mule—first on the right side of the head and then on the left. "I thought you said to be gentle with him?" said the first farmer. "Oh sure," said the second farmer, "but first you have to get his attention."

The Early History of Teaching

I do not intend to present you with a full-fledged diatribe on the History of Education but it seems to me that in the very beginnings and in the development of educational practice, there are some clues to the very slow progress that we have made toward professional status in the teaching profession.

We know that the first teachers were parents, tribal chiefs, medicine men and priests and that with the development of society the task of teaching the young became the almost exclusive prerogative of the Church. It may be of interest also to know that in the Greek and Roman states the school teacher was a slave and that the only respected teachers were those "who lectured to the selected few—young men destined to be leaders in their city states." For many centuries the position of the church and the school were closely interwoven and many indications of this close association remain with us to this day.

I should like to quote from a booklet on "The Professional Status of Teachers" prepared for the second Conference of Education, page 3:

In the English-speaking societies of the last century the respect due to unworldly learning was reserved for the teacher in private and grammar schools who prepared what we would call senior high school students for the universities, and still more, of course, for the select few who occupied university chairs. This situation could be viewed with some approval had it not been for two factors: (a) the secondary school and university teacher too often had to combine his teaching with preaching (or with private means or a wealthy wife) in order to maintain a way of life appropriate to a gentleman of the day; and (b) most children had little or no formal schooling at all and those who were exposed to the minimum available got it in charity schools or in so-called dame schools from semi-literate instructors who were willing to accept the wages of an unskilled laborer.

It is not my intention to attempt to follow the early history of education in Manitoba but I do wish you to accept the fact that present problems have their origins in past history. What I am looking for at this point is a starting place to kick off the concept of the teacher as a professional person and the beginnings of teaching as a profession in this province.

Beginnings of Professional Organization

I think that I should like to begin this paper with a short history of the beginnings and development of our professional organization. I may be biased but your chairman knew when he approached me where my sympathies lay and I make no apologies for claiming that in the growth of our organization lies the major hope for professional development. "No man can stand alone," is a truism but never was it more true than in teaching and without a strong central organization in the past and an even stronger one in the future "teaching" would be nothing more than a skilled trade.

I am indebted to Mr. Harold Vidal and his Master of Education Thesis for much of the story of our professional organization "The Manitoba Teachers' Society."

The story began in Dunrea, Manitoba in 1907. A small group of teachers residing mainly in neighbouring towns and villages met at Dunrea on November 30, 1907 to draft a constitution for an association which it named "The League of Manitoba Teachers." Mr. P. R. Loutit of Dunrea, Manitoba and Miss Munroe and Mr. A. G. Huskins both of Margaret, Manitoba were elected President, Vice-President and Secretary-Treasurer respectively. No record can be found of this group ever meeting again and it can only be assumed that the crisis which precipitated this first meeting passed over and no urgency was felt to proceed with an organization for ten more years.

Nothing further was accomplished in the matter of professional organization until the summer of 1918. At that time, teachers from different parts of the province were examining papers for the Department of Education at the Normal School. The account of this first successful meeting is quoted from *The Manitoba Teacher*, June, 1932, Vol. 13, No. 6, page 14:

It was on a summer evening, July 17, 1918, that a group of teachers numbering less than half a dozen met in the Y.M.C.A. to discuss the formation of a teachers' organization. There they decided upon a movement which later developed into the Manitoba Teachers' Federation, and the chairman whom they nominated on that occasion was Mr. W. E. Marsh, then of Belmont. The next day a meeting was held of the teachers who were examining papers in the Normal School, and it was there decided to continue the organization decided upon the evening before. An Executive was appointed and Mr. Marsh was confirmed in his position as chairman and the Federation was well on its career with sixty-two teachers signing the membership list. On August 29-30 that summer, this executive met in the Beaubier Hotel, Brandon, and drew up a provincial constitution providing for the formation of Locals, as well as the establishment of a Central Executive, and Annual Conference. This preliminary constitution was re-drafted several times before presentation the following Easter. In the meantime, a score or more Locals were organized and the teachers were rallying to the newly formed organization with enthusiasm. At Easter, 1919, a constitution was adopted at a memorial meeting held in the Industrial Bureau, a meeting never to be forgotten by those who were there. It began at 7:30 and lasted until midnight. That meeting made educational history.

Advances and Gains Since 1919

Several very significant events have occurred through the years since 1919 which are worthy of comment in an outline of professional development, and I will content myself with mentioning some of them.

1920—An Act was passed by the Manitoba Legislature incorporating The Manitoba Teachers' Federation.

1934—The Faculty of Education was established at the University of Manitoba under Dean D. S. Woods. This was a move which had been advocated and pressed for many years by The Manitoba Teachers' Federation. Until this time teachers with graduate degrees had taken their training at the Normal School in a separate class but with most of the same instructors as the rest of the teacher recruits.

- 1942—The Manitoba Teachers' Federation became The Manitoba Teachers' Society. Membership became automatic but not compulsory. The Manitoba Teachers' Society Act was passed.
- 1946—The old Normal School on William Avenue was abandoned and teacher training began at its present site in Tuxedo where a residential Teachers' College was established. Since that time most of the undergraduate teacher training has been carried on from that site.
- 1950—A Code of Ethics for teachers was adopted during the Annual General Meeting at Easter.
- 1956—Since 1948 the teachers of Manitoba had been accepted under the Manitoba Labor Relations Act and had begun to bargain with their employers for salaries under the terms of this Act. In 1956 some teachers and many employers began to feel that the terms of the Public Schools Act, the Education Department Act and the Manitoba Labor Relations Act had terms which were in conflict. After a series of briefs and counter briefs, meetings, individually and collectively with the Minister of Education and with the Cabinet, all legislation was gathered together under the Public Schools Act and the Education Department Act, and the Public Schools Act was amended to embrace the new legislation. It was at this time that the teachers of Manitoba accepted compulsory arbitration of disputes between employer and employee. It is interesting to note that in a brief presented to the Industrial Relations Commission at this time by the Urban School Trustees' Association, one of the arguments in favor of compulsory arbitration was cited in these words "This ultimate remedy (strike) we think, is contrary to public interests and beneath the dignity of *professional people such as teachers.*" Apparently at that time and under those circumstances, the Urban Trustees' Association had no doubt about the professional status of teachers but under other circumstances, they, and others have expressed some doubt in this regard.

Teaching—A Job Or A Profession

I recently sat on a panel with Dr. Andrew Moore and one of his complaints in regard to teaching and teachers was that they were trying to walk a fine line between professionalism and unionism—that they were trying to use union methods while claiming professional status.

I would like to say immediately that this accusation has been made by others before Dr. Moore and will be made again. I think that many of you know that at least twice since 1945 the matter of uniting with the Canadian Congress of Labor or the Trades and Labor Congress has been considered to some degree by the teachers. Each time it was concluded that the disadvantages outweighed the advantages and the matter was left in abeyance.

However the fact that unionism has been considered is at the nub of the problem that teachers must face. If teaching is but "a job of work—a skilled trade to be performed by almost anyone who possesses average intelligence and masters a scant bag of pedagogical tricks—then to be sure professionalism is an impractical dream which could well be abandoned in favor of the organizational procedures which have been dramatically successful in improving the economic status of skilled and semi-skilled trade and industrial workers."

The fact that teachers bargain collectively with their employers is often used in an effort to prove that teachers are really not professional people. "Teachers as a group cannot accept the idea that it is unprofessional to negotiate fairly and in good faith with their employers. It is difficult to understand how the use of a process involving skill, energy, patience and justice to both sides is any less professional than the arbitrary fee-setting that society accepts from many of the groups which offer services."

If we are to resolve the question of whether teaching is a profession or a branch of trade unionism we must immediately get a clear and convincing picture of what we mean by professionalism. There are few terms used so loosely by teachers and others and we must either define it or stop using it. We have no alternative but to say clearly what we mean when we say that teaching is, or at least ought to be, a profession. It would seem to me that we ought to stop trying to compare ourselves to doctors and lawyers and other so-called professional groups unless we can prove that teaching either has become, or has the potential of becoming, a true profession. Teaching is undeniably different in nature and organization from the other accepted professional groups just as these groups differ among themselves; but if teaching fits in to the accepted definition of a profession even to some degree, then, we as a group can begin to work toward the mending of our fences to make it fit in to a greater degree until it becomes finally a true profession.

The Characteristics of a Profession

Perhaps the most satisfactory way to begin would be to do what many others have done—i.e., to set out as clearly as possible what has been agreed upon as the characteristics of a profession and then to attempt to fit teaching into them to find out how far we have come and how far we still have to go.

The most satisfactory list that I have come across is one quoted by Dean Coutts of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, as being one first produced by Myron Lieberman of the University of Oklahoma and modified by Dean Coutts. Here are their eight important criteria of a profession. A profession:

1. performs a unique, definite, and essential social service;
2. emphasizes intellectual techniques in performing that service;
3. is based upon a long period of specialized preparation, both academic and professional;

4. provides a wide measure of autonomy both for the individual practitioner and for the occupational group;
5. accepts responsibility for judgments made and acts performed within the scope of professional autonomy;
6. stresses service, rather than economic gain, as the basis for the organization and performance of the social service which the occupational group renders;
7. possesses a comprehensive self-governing organization of practitioners;
8. has a code of ethics which has been clarified and interpreted at ambiguous and doubtful points by concrete cases.

How Does Teaching Fit In?

It is my opinion that teaching has made gains and can be considered to fit in well to five of these eight requisites of a professional group, and I intend to spend the balance of my time analyzing the three areas in which teaching has not made the gains which could be expected or hoped.

Let me review these again.

1. performs a unique, definite and essential social service—surely we don't need to argue this point and surely no one will disagree that teaching is unique, definite and essential. I say surely no one can disagree, knowing all the time that some will disagree. Such is the nature of teaching that everyone has opinions about it and people seldom agree.

I will quote from a clipping from the Winnipeg Free Press of November 23, 1961:

"Dr. Margaret Mead, the controversial anthropologist, suggested Wednesday that Americans might be better off if they had no schools at all.

"Mothers—not schools—she said should teach children to read and count, and television weather maps are already doing a better job of teaching geography than the average school."

Dr. Mead continues, "What would happen if we asked why, in the 1960's, we should have schools at all and for what, for whom, at what time, for how long? . . . What is the real basis of our belief that children should be taught to read in school? When societies wished to become literate within a generation, schools were a necessity so that children of non-literate parents could be taught in bunches.

"Since American (and presumably Canadian) society today is almost completely literate, why shouldn't mothers, who spend all day with their children, teach them to read, to understand money, to think about numbers, to understand the calendar, the clock, time, space?"

What about television and its possibility of replacing the classroom teacher? What about the new approach of programmed learning with its machines and its tapes? What about closed circuit television and the potential it offers for visual aids and large classes? Is the teaching group to be reduced to the status of baby-sitters with a small group of well-trained educators preparing tapes, machined textbooks or television programs?

Enough of Dr. Mead and teaching aids. In spite of these suggestions I am still taking it for granted that teaching is a unique, definite and essential social service and that it will not be superseded by either untrained mothers or mechanical teaching aids.

2. emphasizes intellectual techniques in performing that service. Once again my temptation is to say immediately—no argument. However, I know that there are some who are not convinced that it requires intellectual techniques to teach, particularly in the elementary school. I am not going to labor the point, but respect for the teaching profession will grow as we teachers demonstrate that not everyone can teach and that training, skill and intelligence are necessary requisites to successful practice of teaching at all levels.

I am going to jump over the third, fourth and fifth criteria to return to them later.

6. stresses service rather than economic gain as the basis for the organization and performance of the social service which the occupational group renders.

In spite of recent salary gains I think you will agree with me that no one will ever enter the teaching profession expecting to become wealthy. As long as teachers spend hours outside of their classrooms marking, preparing, studying, arranging and organizing, it would seem to me that teaching fits this criterion of stressing service.

7. possesses a comprehensive, self-governing organization of practitioners—the organization of The Manitoba Teachers' Society in 1919 and its growth and development as outlined previously meets this criterion.

8. has a code of ethics, etc.—I have already stated that the first code of ethics of The Manitoba Teachers' Society was adopted in 1950. It was amended several times and in 1960 was redrawn and reworded and re-adopted. In the fall of 1961, it formed part of the indoctrination ceremonies for new teachers in Division Associations across the province.

Where Are We Weak?

I now return to criteria three, four and five.

3. is based upon a long period of specialized preparation both academic and professional. What is a long period of specialized preparation? What should be the relationship between academic and professional training? Is a different training required to teach in the

elementary and secondary schools? These are questions which need answers and such answers as only the teaching group can give. We are torn within our own ranks to give answers to these questions and instead of giving leadership on the problem, we are creating public distrust and doubt because we have not come up with clear and distinct answers.

Before I offer any advice, I should pause and tell you about an incident which I read recently—it seems that a teacher asked her pupils to write a story about Socrates. One pupil wrote:

Socrates was a very wise man.

He went about advising the people.

The people poisoned Socrates.

Now, do we need a long period of specialized training for teaching? In my opinion the answer has to be “yes.” “Nearly half of our teachers are rank amateurs. They have less than a bare minimum of training that teachers themselves consider tolerable: senior matriculation plus a year of pedagogy. In all of Canada only twenty-five per cent of teachers are university graduates and most of these are in secondary schools. Yet, a teacher needs the fullest training to do his job efficiently and conscientiously. Nowadays a teacher must put in an average of twenty-five hours a week of classes (using teaching methods that the educational psychologists are making more and more complex), plus voluntary after-school tuition, and evenings spent preparing lessons, marking and extra curricular supervision.”*

I am not so naive as to think that the answer to professional status is a university degree for all teachers, but I believe that a teacher should be a broadly educated person as well as a skilful practitioner of the art and science of teaching. It is also true that those with extended preparation are more likely to continue teaching. The rapid turnover in the teacher ranks—often quoted as complete every five years—is used as an indication of the lack of professionalism in teaching. This may make the attainment of professionalism more difficult, but it seems to me that it is not a cause but a result of practices carried out in the past. If teaching is an art to be learned over an extended period of time, we cannot afford to have in our ranks people who have little investment in time, effort or money in their position.

All other things being equal, the person with the broadest and best educational preparation will be the best teacher. This is another way of saying that good teachers must first be educated people. They must not only know the subject matter they would teach, but know enough about our total culture to assess the significance of their own field. Every teacher needs to have a good liberal education with sufficient depth in some subject matter area to call himself rightfully a specialist. Then on top of all this he must master the body of specialized professional knowledge which makes him a teacher.

* What's Wrong With Our Teachers"—George Roberts. September, 1959 issue of the Imperial Oil Review.

May I also comment on the current presumption that an elementary teacher need not have the same depth of academic knowledge and professional skill as the secondary teacher.

I sincerely believe and I think it could be proven that the average elementary teachers faces more problems which might be termed "professional" as distinct from "academic" than does the average secondary teacher—problems of child growth and development, readiness, classroom management, grouping for individual differences, of teaching techniques in such pedagogically difficult subjects as reading, language and arithmetic. More educational research in teaching methods has been devoted to these fields than to any others.

There is far more to elementary teaching than instructional skill alone. We all realize that the child is no less intelligent in the elementary grades than he will be at the secondary level. He will simply know more when he reaches the secondary school—how much more depends in large measure upon how well educated his teachers were in the elementary school. These teachers should therefore be well-informed, broadly educated adults. Their education should not be inferior to that of the better educated adults of the community. If it is inferior, then teachers can never hope to win respect for their profession.

May I quote from the Superintendent's Annual Report to the Winnipeg School Board for 1960—page 6:

Considering the requirements of education today and the need for the best possible program of instruction for all pupils, it is suggested that improvement should be made in the program of teacher education. Standards for entrance into the teaching profession need to be raised. It is regrettable that entrance requirements for Teachers College are lower than for University and that students who have failed and been required to withdraw permanently from University, may be admitted to the Teachers College. With respect to the period of training—it should be possible to extend this beyond one year in the Teachers College. Lack of success in teaching in *all grades* is often due to lack of skill in teaching procedures and pupil control, and it is therefore important that these aspects of teacher training should receive due attention. Finally, refresher courses for those who have been absent from teaching would do much to assist this group to return to the profession.

4. provides a wide measure of autonomy both for the individual practitioner and for the occupational group.

Just how much autonomy do we have and how much is desirable? Once again I would like to quote Dean Coutts: "In a true profession each practitioner is an expert. If a decision requires expert skill and knowledge, it should be made by those who are competent and professionally trained. The individual physician, for example, is not subject to the control of lay opinion but bases his decision on professional knowledge and practice."

We know and often cite the fact that in the true professions the members of that profession control entry into that profession by formulating the criteria for admission. This is true of doctors, lawyers, nurses, chiropodists, engineers, chiropractors, etc., but it most certainly is not

true of teachers. It seems not to be generally understood that in Manitoba we have automatic but not compulsory membership and do not have any control over the type of person or the qualifications of the person who enters the teacher group.

The objection most commonly offered to more control on behalf of teachers is that, if we leave admission requirements to teachers themselves, they may exclude all but a favored few and use this as a weapon to increase financial rewards.

Certification of teachers is a prerogative which provincial departments of education guard jealously. In 1956 the teachers of Manitoba thought that they had won a major point when they secured from the then Minister of Education a verbal promise to give them representation on a committee on "Teacher Selection and Certification." Three members of The Teachers' Society were appointed to this Committee. It met several times during the first two years mainly to reconsider the types of certificates then in existence. It has not met for two years and teachers have lost any hope that it will ever become a true Committee of selection and certification even if it should meet.

How much autonomy do the teachers of Manitoba have in the matter of curriculum and textbooks? At the present time in Manitoba we are trying to develop a new course in the secondary schools. The former general curriculum committee has died of inactivity and has not been re-activated. Subject committees are working in various areas and at various levels mainly in the secondary school. It seems to me that at the present time we are engaged in the process of patching up some gaping holes in a curriculum that was developed in 1946, but we are dissipating our energies in all directions with no central philosophy of what we are trying to do. The Advisory Board composed of representatives of the Department of Education, the two Trustees' organizations, The Manitoba Teachers' Society and the general public passes on all changes; but the diligence of this group is exerted largely to see that changes do not involve matters offensive to any racial, religious or political group, and little thought is given to determining philosophy or to objectives and goals at any level.

I notice that the press in this city has taken every opportunity to impress upon the public the concept that teachers must not be allowed to gain control of curriculum content and plants the idea that pandemonium would reign if more freedom were allowed to teachers in this regard. You will have noticed also that the press has taken up the fight for standardization of curriculum in all the provinces of Canada.

I do not pretend to be wise enough to solve this controversy, but if teaching is a profession and if professional people make up the membership of this profession, then—the determination of course content and the adaptation of curriculum to individual needs must be left to the teaching group. I do not wish to imply that every teacher in every classroom should develop a separate course of studies nor necessarily

use a different set of textbooks, but teacher representation on curriculum committees must be continued and extended.

5. accepts responsibility for judgments made and acts performed within the scope of professional autonomy.

This is another way of saying that a professional teacher must have academic freedom but along with academic freedom must go the right of the organization to discipline members of its professional group.

Several years ago the trustees of this province accused the teachers' organization of trying to protect incompetent teachers. I should like to tell you that this accusation caused much soul-searching within the organization because it was realized that this is at the basis of our claim to professional status. May I assure you that there is no group more anxious to weed out incompetents than The Manitoba Teachers' Society *but* there are two very large stumbling blocks in the way. First—what is an incompetent teacher? Who judges? In almost all cases brought to our attention to date, the trustees have refused to accept the opinion of the school inspector or principal and wish to judge competency on the basis of children's reports or some other equally invalid criteria which we refuse to accept. Second—the lack of compulsory membership in the organization cancels out any effective action on the part of the teacher group. We have had many examples in the past where we have investigated complaints, have written to admonish or reprimand the teacher (which is all the law allows us to do) only to be told by return mail that the teacher no longer wishes to be a member of the Society *but* he still continues to teach and carry on as before.

Professionalism is built from within. Each year we must accept more responsibility for critically evaluating both our own work and that of our colleagues. As training programs become longer and more specialized, only those within the field will be in a position to determine the kind and quality of professional training necessary. Hence teachers will have to assume control over certification policy. As teachers function more and more as members of a team they will be in the best position to detect incompetence and inefficiency of fellow teachers.

The teachers' organizations of at least two provinces (B.C. and the secondary teachers in Ontario) are already taking preliminary steps to make membership in their professional organization have meaning and status, and the organization of the Canadian College of Teachers may in its later development be an alternate to provincial control of certification standards.

And now I come to the crux of the matter under discussion—where are we weak? I have already pointed out these areas but let me summarize again. Our main problems are in the following fields:

1. Training and qualifications
2. Selection and certification

3. Drop-outs and re-entry
4. Curriculum responsibility
5. Autonomy of the teaching profession
6. Compulsory membership and discipline of members.

1. *Training and Qualifications*

In the report of the Royal Commission on Education, it was stated that out of every ten teacher trainees at Teachers College in this province only three have Senior Matriculation standing, three have Normal Entrance (no foreign language) and four have something less. Is it any wonder that our teachers' organization has stated that entrance qualifications must be raised immediately and has suggested that steps be taken to raise the entrance requirements for teacher training according to the following schedule:

September, 1961—Senior Matriculation with not more than one condition.

September, 1964—Complete 2nd year university standing.

September, 1967—Complete 3rd year university standing.

September, 1970—B.A. or B.Sc. degree or equivalent.

May I quote from the Report of the Royal Commission on Education, 1959, pages 77 and 78 in an attempt to define what kind of training should be provided in this program:

At the undergraduate level the education of the future teacher should be an education in the liberal arts and sciences. The ideal of liberal education is to produce men and women with disciplined minds, cultivated interests and a wide range of fundamental knowledge. Who in our society needs these more than the teacher? We increasingly recognize that the doctor, the lawyer, and the engineer, if they are to achieve true professional eminence, must receive balanced training in many intellectual disciplines. How much more does a teacher need such an education! For him the fundamental intellectual disciplines are not supplements to, but the very essence of, his professional stock in trade. The teacher never knows when he may be called upon to give instruction in any or all of them. The students whose work he directs have a right to expect of him a genuine and sympathetic understanding of their various intellectual interests and ambitions. Whatever else a teacher may need, he must possess ready command of a variety of intellectual skills and a fund of accurate knowledge. Otherwise he can never make any significant or enduring impression upon the minds of his pupils and his efforts as a teacher will be greeted by them with little real respect.

The university has increasingly thought of itself as an institution for preparing for every major profession except that of teaching. This may be a carryover from the situation where the university itself has not accepted the fact that it is necessary to have any professional training to teach in the university.

Teachers and their professional organization must become partners in the training of teacher recruits. In our struggle for full professional status we must offer and seize every opportunity to press for a larger and larger share in planning the training program for new teachers and

in improving their opportunities to do practice teaching. From time to time I have heard teachers suggest that they should receive pay for supervising practice teachers. I must say that I decry this suggestion and would suggest to my fellow teachers that this is not a professional approach and that when the day comes when we are given some share in planning that we must and will be ready to give aid in the carrying out of these plans.

We have stated many times that we believe that all teacher training should be centralized on the university campus and be under the direct control of the university rather than under the direction of the Department of Education.

2. Selection and Certification

Candidates to the teaching profession must be selected most carefully. This will insure a superior group of teachers capable of advanced teacher training, dedicated to their calling and able to provide dynamic leadership. Wise selection of candidates will do more than any other single factor to give the teaching profession the prestige that we believe is its rightful heritage.

Teachers themselves, through their organization, must secure valid participation in the selection process. This should take the form of more than representation on a selection committee which examines paper records only. The teachers' organization must attempt to secure responsibility for interviewing all prospective candidates for teaching. There should also be a firm commitment that their recommendations in regard to unsuitability for personality and other reasons would be accepted.

I might also suggest that our present methods of certifying teachers needs an overhaul. I am not absolutely sure of the number and variety of certificates now issued by the Department of Education in Manitoba but on page 101 of the Royal Commission report eighteen different certificates are listed as being issued to teachers in this province in the past.

Our professional organization must work towards a larger share in the certification of teachers. We must assume a growing responsibility that deadwood does not gravitate to our profession, nor be allowed to accumulate in our ranks. This can be safeguarded most effectively if we have an influential voice in determining who is to be licensed to teach in our schools. I might say at this point that the Canadian School Trustees' Association has taken a stand at direct variance with this position. On page 6 of a recent brief on the "Professional Status of Teachers" prepared for presentation to the coming Canadian Conference on Education, they state:

We are very emphatically of the opinion that the responsibility and authority for the certification of teachers must remain with the governments, and that this should not be transferred to the teaching profession or to the universities. Our reasoning in support of this opinion is quite simple. In the cases where the professions have charge of their own certification, the people have quite free choice in the

selection of personnel to serve them. For example, patients can choose their medical doctors and clients can choose their lawyers. On the other hand, the education of our children is compulsory and parents do not select the teachers for the instruction of their children in our publicly controlled schools. For this reason, it is in the public interest to retain teacher certification standards within the control of the elected representatives of the people. We consider this to be a fundamental necessity."

I am not going to comment further on this statement except to state again that I consider it to be equally as fundamental a necessity to professional status for the teacher group to have a larger share in the control of certification standards, and I am convinced that the education of the young people of Manitoba would be better served by following my suggestion rather than that of the Canadian Teachers' Association.

3. Drop-Outs and Re-entry

Returnees to the profession have been a vital necessity during a period of short supply, but it must not be forgotten that the creation of a transient group in the profession tends to downgrade standards. If, overwhelmed by the prospect of need of large numbers of bodies, we lower teaching standards then we undermine the profession and deprive it of that prestige and authority which are so necessary to create a real profession. The path of expediency leads inevitably to disaster. We must insist on retraining and re-examination for these returnees and we must at the same time try to create in the schools conditions which will tend to reduce the drop-out rate. As standards are raised, as more and more well-trained people enter the profession, fewer will drop out and our retention rate will rise.

4. Curriculum Responsibility

One of the best examples of the growth in professionalism among Manitoba teachers is their rapid expansion in the field of curriculum development in the past several years. At the Annual General Meeting held at Easter in 1958, a Curriculum Committee of The Manitoba Teachers' Society was established for the first time. Each year has seen a rapid expansion of activity in this field culminating in the very considerable impetus given by this committee to the introduction of the newly proposed general course for the secondary schools of this province. Workshops have been held across the province and teachers have become familiar with the problems in this area. The work of the Winnipeg Division Association in the areas of Social Studies and of the Elementary Council in Science and Arithmetic are other examples of this increased activity.

It should be the aim of the teachers of the province through their organization to press for a permanent curriculum committee of the Department of Education, adequately staffed and composed largely of practising educators whose function would be to give dynamic leadership in curriculum revision and to encourage school systems and teachers to play a fuller role in curriculum planning and revision.

The following quotation from the Annual Report of the Winnipeg School Division, 1960, page 1, illustrates some of the activity in this area.

A characteristic of the Winnipeg schools is that individual teachers and groups of teachers are constantly seeking ways of improving instruction. Efforts to this end are carried on through the program of in-service training in which leadership is provided by teachers, by supervisors and directors, and by principals. A good deal of study of educational problems is given by organized groups of teachers, some of it through the professional organization of the teaching body and some of it through clubs and associations formed for the purpose.

Each week in the bulletin to the schools there is a listing of these meetings. It is of interest to record that there were 94 meetings announced during 1960 for professional improvement in addition to many others that were held without notice or were limited to specific schools.

The work of many of these bodies finds direct application on the school program, in modification to curriculum, or in the development of new procedures in testing. In addition, a good deal of valuable assistance is provided to teachers who are new on the Winnipeg staff. The continuing shortage in all parts of Canada of well-qualified teachers makes it necessary to expend considerable time in all school systems to help inexperienced teachers or those who are returning to teaching after an extended absence.

5. Autonomy of the Teaching Profession

I have very little to add to what I have already said on this topic. In view of a long history of the acceptance of low minimum qualifications for teachers and of short-term, emergency training courses it would appear that the biggest obstacle in the path of higher prestige and of professional status for teachers is the public image of a wage-earning minor civil servant in charge of children for only ten months of the year, to whom little freedom of action and responsibility outside of the classroom can safely be entrusted.

This distorted image can and must be changed and teachers both individually and as a group must exert every effort in order to change it.

6. Compulsory Membership and Discipline of Members

I will summarize what I have said on this point by quoting from the previously mentioned conference study guide on the "Professional Status of Teachers" (page 64):

Every provincial teachers' association in Canada today has the power by law to enrol as active members all teachers in publicly controlled schools and to subject them to its discipline (subject to write-out provisions in some provinces). It therefore has the organizational potential to accept delegation to it of some or all of the provincial department's power over the preparation and certificating of teachers. In practice, of course, the actual work of teacher education would be assumed by the universities as is now the case in some provinces. Certification should, however, be the responsibility of the profession. But the issuing of the license to teach could remain the prerogative of the Department of Education, thus protecting the state from excessive demands by the profession. If the organized teaching profession had the power of certification, it could justifiably be given the responsibility for maintaining high standards of competence and ethical conduct by its members.

What To Do

For many years the teachers of Manitoba have talked about a Professional Bill and the prospects of having it passed by the legislature. In the files of The Manitoba Teachers' Society there are several drafts of different bills that various committees have worked out and we have a committee working today on another draft of such a bill.

It is my belief that neither we nor the government are ready for a professional bill, but we are still some years away in Manitoba. solved or at least worked on and each year we are closer to obtaining a professional bill but we are still some years away in Manitoba.

It is my belief that a partnership between the Trustees' Organizations, the Teachers' Society and the Department of Education must be worked out and that the teachers will finally earn and prove their right to deal either directly or through delegated authority with the recruitment and selection of teachers, the training of teachers, the setting of requirements for certification of teachers, the assessment of teacher competence and the improvement of instruction via improved curriculum. When that day comes the teachers of Manitoba will have a professional bill that will have meaning and validity and we will have a teaching profession of which teachers and public may be proud.

Conclusion

And now may I bring this rambling dissertation to a close by expressing the hope that, somewhere, somehow, in the preceding interval I have happened upon some ideas that will strike a responsive chord with you and will start you to thinking of how *you* as an individual may work toward improved professional status for the teacher. I say this because I believe that, in the final analysis, professionalism is a state of mind. It is an individual matter and can only be created by individuals working in unison toward a common goal. If teaching is presented in its true light, as a challenging profession which requires people of moral, physical and intellectual stamina, if we take teaching out of the spoon-feeding, nurse-maiding, baby-sitting class of occupations, then I believe we shall have no trouble in finding suitable recruits and of convincing the public of the need for true professional status. The teachers who are in service cannot speak ill of their work. The quality of a nation and of its citizens depends, not exclusively, but in a critical measure, upon the quality of education. The quality of education rests on the quality of the men and women who teach the youth of our land.

I have said that I hope that I have presented one or two ideas that you are able to seize upon as some kind of an answer to the problem of professionalism for teachers. I should like to close with a little story that I think illustrates the point.

Two duck hunters were waiting for dawn to break over the half-frozen marsh where they were ensconced in a duck blind. One of them had brought a thermos of hot coffee to keep himself warm. The other had brought a thermos of brandy. Both thermoses were empty when the sun came up and a lone duck flew overhead. The coffee drinker raised

his gun, fired, and missed. The brandy drinker raised his gun, fired, and watched the duck fall with satisfaction.

"Nice shot," commented the coffee drinker.

"Shucks," said the other modestly, "when you shoot at a flock like that, you can't hardly miss hitting at least one."

Thank you.

February 6, 1962.

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RURAL EDUCATION IN A CHANGING SOCIETY

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I. INTRODUCTION

This article is based upon a doctoral dissertation completed by the writer in 1959 under the title: "A Study of the Impact of Demographic and Economic Changes in Rural Alberta on the Financing of Education." Although the study was primarily concerned with Alberta, many of the findings can be applied directly to all three of the Prairie Provinces, while others have but indirect application.

In the Canadian West the pattern of rural living and of rural education followed parallel developments in all areas for many years. More recently, particularly since the evolution of the concept which encompasses larger units of school administration, developments have diverged somewhat. The Alberta School Division has been duplicated only in part in Manitoba; but this is the only major difference—admittedly a most important one.

The general problem of planning, initiating, and financing a program of education which will guarantee "equity in educational opportunity" for rural youth is primarily the same throughout the Prairie Provinces.

II. THE PIONEER PATTERN

The Small School District

The early patterns of settlement and of school organization in Alberta encompassed typical pioneer conditions—small farms, restricted communication and travel, and the relatively simple educational demands of a people who were entrenching themselves in a land of untested agricultural potential. The small school flourished in small and vigorous communities whose citizens were developing a "way of life" in relative isolation.

The Limited Educational Horizon

Financial problems were perhaps less complex than they are today. The pioneer farmers of Alberta were largely self-sufficient, and uncertain markets were minimized by low overhead and limited capitalization. Farming communities, depending as they did upon much hand labour, needed and readily absorbed their own increase of unskilled workers. Many farms were "family units" which were owned and operated by members of the family. This further reduced the flow of dollars away from the farm and thus increased the self-sufficiency of the farm unit.

Small Educational Return

Farm operations were carried out with a minimum of specialized equipment: a "strong back" was the major requirement of farm labourers.

The need for extensive academic or vocational training was not as apparent as it is today. The small school district and the one-room school were quite adequate for the job at hand—instruction in the three R's.

Small School Financing

Although size presented a problem from the first, the small municipal district provided a reasonably effective unit for the administration of local services. Land, being the principal form of wealth, was the logical source of local revenue. The land tax was relatively adequate to the needs of local authorities, particularly because it had the virtue of being readily administered. All local expenditures involved only the local community and its residents, most of whom depended upon the soil as a source of income. Ability to pay was directly related to the ownership of land.

III. THE PATTERN CHANGES

Impinging Forces

Even while early settlement was assuming its first characteristics, demographic and economic forces were in operation in a manner which would substantially modify the goals toward which the pioneers worked. There was evidence, even before the birth of Alberta as a province, that the "way of life" was not to be untroubled. It was early learned that quarter-sections of land were not all equal in productivity; sub-marginal units failed to provide sufficient returns to support the modest financial demands of the pioneer economy. The early need to abandon the quarter-section system of landholding in many parts of Alberta brought with it the first accentuation of school population scatter. The story is told by dwindling enrolments in rural schools, and by non-operating "tombstone" districts.

The Imprint of Progress

For the past four decades trends have been at work changing every aspect of rural living. Prominent among these trends have been farm mechanization, reductions in the labour force, increased farm acreages, capitalization, and commercial farming. The accentuation of population scatter which resulted has been paralleled by an increasing need for more and better education.

The Educational Horizon Widens

Pressing financial problems resulted. Rural birth rates, although subject to periodical national influence, remained relatively high. The rural economy was not able to absorb the surplus population, and large numbers of rural youth were forced to migrate. For economic reasons, many farmers who adhered to the early plan of farming became subsistence farmers, and, as such, were financially unable to meet the demands placed upon them. The three R's failed to meet the educational needs of either the young people who remained on the farm or of those who migrated to urban areas, where semi-skills and skills were the keys to

satisfying employment. It early became apparent that financial outlays far greater than those required to operate the one-room school would be required, if the changing needs of rural education were to be met.

Population "Scatter"

Paralleling the general trends which were operative throughout rural Alberta was the further accentuation of population scatter in the southern areas of the province: this was accompanied by population expansion in the north. Efforts on the part of local and provincial authorities to meet the new demands on education and to offset the problem of scatter expressed themselves in the form of expanded administrative units, larger attendance areas, and inclusion agreements. The problem was one of combining adequate instruction with economy of operation.

Financial "Pinch"

Financially the pattern became progressively clear—a growing feeling of the inadequacy of the land tax. Changes in land usage, not necessarily related to income, engendered inequalities in the burden of educational load. Accompanying this was a continuing upward trend in educational costs, as local administrative units attempted to formulate and to carry out effective programs of reorganization. Increasing expenditures for conveyance and annual debt charges constituted a kind of "operational overhead" that directed dollars away from the instructional program. Often there was little relationship between the operational overhead resulting from reorganization and the tax-paying ability of the local administrative units concerned. It is noteworthy, however, that in spite of vastly increased educational costs, there was a decline in the proportion of the total local tax revenue being expended for education. This resulted from the increasing demands for additional services as the standard of living improved. It expressed itself in keen competition for tax dollars among the various local services.

Agriculture Loses Buoyancy

While expenditures for education and other local services were being increased annually, agriculture was losing its buoyancy, and soon was no longer the major sector of the provincial economy. Thus, in addition to inequalities in ability to pay among local taxing units, there was a general downward trend in the proportion of the net value of production emanating from agriculture.

IV. EDUCATION BECOMES BIG BUSINESS

Financial Responsibility

The unequal distribution of educational costs, in relation to ability to pay, necessitated the development of a system of provincial grants to education which emphasized the "equalization" factor. The redistribution of provincial monies among local education authorities has been accompanied by a marked upward trend in the total amounts of annual education grants. One of the results has been a steadily

increasing proportion of provincial expenditures being devoted to education and a decreasing proportion of local expenditures being so used. While the provincial authorities assumed a greater share of educational costs, local authorities directed larger portions of their funds elsewhere. To a degree at least, the increased provincial grants to education represented a substitution of provincial expenditures for local expenditures.

"Quantity" of Rural Education

In view of the developments which have taken place, one must conclude that the major changes to date—1959—in the organization, curriculum, and financing of rural education have been inevitable with regard to forces at work. Changes in the pattern of rural education have resulted from efforts to find a satisfactory replacement for a system which proved inadequate. The sheer cost of reorganizing the physical aspects of rural education in order to keep the system operating in the face of demographic and economic changes accounted for a major portion of increased educational expenditures in the past few decades. The gravity of these problems may have caused rural society to concentrate upon "quantitative" aspects of rural education, and consequently to fail to appreciate fully the task of education in modern society.

With this thought in mind one is forced to assess the "quality" of the present provisions for education and to analyze certain attitudes toward education which are common in rural communities.

"Quality" of Rural Education

The present pattern of rural centralizations undoubtedly extends opportunities for rural children far beyond those available in the one-room school. There are some variations in programs, but these are seriously restricted both in clientele and in scope. The achievement of matriculation has been a boon to the academically inclined. However, all young people who will be absorbed in rural life need greater access to semi-skills, skills, and pre-vocational education in general, as do many of those who migrate cityward. The obvious means of providing this expanded program would be through further centralizations and pooling of student bodies; however, the limitations of this approach are readily apparent. The restricted potential of further "inclusions," the relatively static total, and the continued scatter of the rural population make major extensions of the present pattern impractical. The implication is that we must face almost prohibitive costs or evolve new forms of organization. In this regard, negative attitudes toward conveyance, dormitory accommodation, and other special arrangements which involve some "personal sacrifice" to the cause of better education loom large. These are real obstacles.

V. PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

Adult Education

It is quite possible that a more satisfactory approach to rural education must await the development of a more understanding attitude

toward the real problems involved. In this respect a program of public relations through adult education which has as its goal an appreciation of the vital needs of rural education would constitute a constructive approach.

The Rural "Push" and Urban "Pull"

Equally as critical, educationally, is the attitude that deplors the exodus of rural youth from the farm. The "education of young people away from the farm" is not economically "bad," unless the "pull" to the city becomes radically greater than the "push" from the farm. If it is argued that this condition already exists, the solution lies perhaps in providing a more satisfying economic life for rural communities. In the final analysis, the quality of rural education will be an important factor in achieving a balance.

Balancing "Push" and "Pull"

The "balance" between urban "pull" and rural "push" depends predominantly upon the economic factor. Farm income depends upon the degree of efficiency with which the factors of production are managed. As land, capital, and management are more effectively organized, the share of production going into labour can be increased. Greater efficiency would appear to be the most effective means of balancing the "push" and the "pull." This is largely a matter of more and better education.

The Universality of Education

The responsibilities of rural communities, however, are broader than the provision of an adequate education for young people who remain on the farm. Mobility, surpluses in the rural population, decreases in the employment opportunities for unskilled workers, and the growth of employment opportunities in urban areas all underscore the desirability of upgrading and broadening rural education. If surplus rural youth are to be employable, they must have access to a kind of education which is adequate for urban society. There can no longer be a rural-urban distinction: the products of the school must be interchangeable.

Who Pays For What?

Finally, public attitudes toward education must be scrutinized. There is need for a shift in the purpose of financing away from "who is going to pay for what we have?" to "what will we need to spend to achieve the desired end?" In this regard there is need for an almost visionary statement of what we need in education and how we are going to pay for it.

VI. A LOOK TO THE FUTURE

Broader and Deeper "Free" Education

There are not many rural communities which will have either the student base or the financial resources to diversify and extend the local

program of education to the degree required. We now have "free" public education, within the rather restricted limits imposed by place of residence and within the confines of the grades and subjects taught in particular schools. New organizational patterns may require a great extension of "free" education.

State Responsibility

The indications are that—while local participation in the financing of education will continue—the almost universal significance of education, as borne out by the trends heretofore discussed, means that the state must shoulder even greater financial responsibility.

A "Strait Jacket" Approach

One of the "shocking" financial implications of this survey is that we may have reconstructed an educational system which is inadequate to the needs, and, furthermore, is not entirely susceptible to the modifications that may be required.

Equity in Educational Opportunity

A realistic approach to the problems of rural education must be based upon state responsibility sufficient to provide a financial guarantee of a sound basic education for all. Financial schemes of the future must distribute the costs of education, even more fully than now, beyond any locale. A maximum in educational returns for each educational dollar spent is basic to the development of a program that will guarantee equity in educational opportunity for rural youth.

Note: An analysis of the data from which this article is drawn has been prepared by the writer in graphical form for the Alberta Advisory Committee on Educational Research, University of Alberta. It has been published as Monographs in Education, No. 5, under the title, "Rural Alberta: Patterns of Change."

Abstract Of Theses

A HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF MANITOBA

by

David Alexander Downie — March, 1961

ABSTRACT

Purpose of the Study: In this paper, the writer has attempted to trace the growth of physical education in the public schools of Manitoba. In meeting the immediate objective, the writer found it desirable to determine what influences had been significant in the establishment of a physical education program in Manitoba and the nature of the present philosophy of physical education in the province.

Method: Although there was a dependence on legislation, government reports and publications for the necessary information, considerable use was made of the minutes of a number of professional and sports organizations. These sources were supplemented by personal interviews with those who had been or still are active in the field of physical education.

Findings: During the early development of physical education in Manitoba, there were several influences which directed the limited program into formal gymnastics and drill. Briefly, these factors were: the Swedish and German systems, the British system of the early twentieth century, and the Strathcona Trust.

Investigations indicated that, although facilities were inadequate, and direction was often lacking, it was the leadership of the enthusiastic teacher which determined the nature of the particular school program. This fact has pointed up the importance of teacher training and the need for improvement.

An additional factor which might be explored even further in a separate study is the influence of agencies outside the Department of Education, in determining the nature of the physical education program. Several professional organizations and sports bodies were considered and it was the opinion of the writer that although these groups have not appreciably influenced the nature of the official program of physical education, they have had considerable influence on the effectiveness of the actual program. Many of the programs could not have been carried out without assistance from some of these groups. With a very few exceptions, it was felt that these groups had made a real and positive contribution to the development of a physical education program.

In the area of teacher training, attention has been drawn to the value of in-service training at various levels and the problem of limited

instructional time available at the Faculty of Education and Teachers College.

In considering facilities, the writer has been reminded frequently that they have been most inadequate. The lack of planning, resulting in unsatisfactory facilities, has been apparent, even in many of the new schools.

Recommendations: In the light of the findings the writer has made several suggestions which he considers would improve the level of instruction in physical education. Some of these are:

1. That until more adequate teacher training can be established, a more detailed program of studies should be set out with a large number of options to provide for the different abilities of the teachers.
2. That at least a diploma course in physical education should be offered at the University of Manitoba.
3. That an evaluation be made of the approaches to physical education taken at the Manitoba Teachers College and at the Faculty of Education, with a view to establishing co-operatively a satisfactory and uniform method.
4. That plans for new schools be required to meet minimum standards in facilities for physical education and that such standards be established and checked by the Director of Physical Education for Manitoba.
5. That the Government of Manitoba give early and sympathetic consideration to the report of the Study Committee on Physical Education and Recreation in Manitoba.

A REPORT ON AN EXPERIMENT TO EVALUATE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TWO DIFFERENT METHODS OF TEACHING ARITHMETIC AT THE GRADE ONE LEVEL

by

Ivy Hinchliffe — April, 1961

ABSTRACT

During the school year 1959-1960, a controlled experiment involving 794 children was conducted in the Winnipeg schools in order to evaluate the relative effectiveness of two different methods of teaching arithmetic at the Grade One level, namely the Cuisenaire method and that suggested in the Living Arithmetic Series.

The philosophical and psychological bases underlying the two methods were compared and contrasted. All available research in the field of arithmetic applicable at the Grade One level was summarized. The Grade One programmes of eight arithmetic series other than those under comparison in the experiment were summarized and compared. All available research into the Cuisenaire method was recorded.

Eleven experimental classes consisting of 309 children were matched with eleven control classes of 285 children. Every precaution was taken to ensure that the experimental and control classes were comparable in regard to intellectual ability, that the schools were comparable in respect to size and socio-economic area, and that the teachers were matched as far as possible in respect to experience, ability, and interest and success in teaching arithmetic.

In the course of testing, programme tests were administered as follows: readiness test at the beginning of the experiment, an achievement test in March and again in June, and an intelligence test in May.

To test achievement, a Power Test was prepared and validated by the writer. The test consisted of three parts: Part One testing competence in the work covered in the Grade One arithmetic course authorized by the Minister of Education for the Province of Manitoba; Part Two testing ability to apply computational skill and mathematical understandings in novel or unfamiliar situations; Part Three testing concepts peculiar to the Cuisenaire course.

In order to validate the Power Test, a preliminary test was constructed and given to one hundred children in three Grade One classes ranging from slow to accelerated in three schools in various socio-economic areas of Winnipeg. An Item Analysis was done and the test was revised. A second preliminary test was given to another one hundred children in three more classes ranging from slow to accelerated in three more schools in various socio-economic areas of the city. A second item analysis was done and a second revision made before the Power Test was finally constructed.

To obtain the subjective assessment of all persons involved in the experiment, questionnaires concerning the advantages and disadvantages of the Cuisenaire method and materials were sent to all teachers and administrators of the classes concerned.

The normality of the sample taking part in the experiment was tested by the "Goodness of Fit" techniques. By means of ungrouped data, the writer computed, described and compared the mean, the standard deviation and where applicable a frequency distribution and a histogram for each of the groups for each section of the testing programme. The gains made by each group during the period March to June were also computed and compared.

The replies to the questionnaires were recorded and summarized.

The following generalizations regarding the relative effectiveness of the two methods of teaching arithmetic were drawn from the objective and subjective results:

1. The Cuisenaire method is a generally better method of teaching arithmetic to children at the Grade One level than that being employed at present in the Winnipeg schools.
2. All persons concerned with the experimental classes agreed that the children in these classes achieved better results and enjoyed arithmetic more than those they observed being taught by the traditional method. They were unanimous in their opinion that the Cuisenaire materials be used on a larger scale in the future.

AN EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION IN WINNIPEG SCHOOLS TO DETERMINE THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE LEARNING OF LATIN INCREASES THE COMPREHENSION OF ENGLISH

by

Mary Dolan MacBride — March, 1961

ABSTRACT

The purpose was to find out, (1) if, in the Winnipeg High Schools, method and content in Latin instruction succeed in bringing about an increase in English vocabulary knowledge and, if so, (2) to ascertain how many years of Latin training best serve this purpose.

Information collected from over a thousand students in Grades nine, ten and eleven matriculation course of six Winnipeg high schools enabled the investigator to match 115 Latin students with an equal number of non-Latin students for age, sex, grade and mental ability.

A statistically significant difference in knowledge of English vocabulary, measured by the Co-operative Vocabulary Test, was found in favour of the Latin students. This difference increased in significance with the number of years of Latin training, and a jump in significant gain was found at the completion of third-year Latin.

Measures were devised to assess three other factors which are known or suspected to affect English vocabulary knowledge. These factors are: (1) native language; (2) years of training in French; and (3) extent of reading. When the influence of these factors was held constant or eliminated, the gain of the Latin students over the non-Latin students was still significant. It is therefore concluded that some of the superiority in English vocabulary knowledge can be attributed solely to instruction in Latin and that students who persist in taking Latin beyond the second year reap the greatest gain in English word knowledge.

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECT OF ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS IN A HIGH SCHOOL UPON ACHIEVEMENT AT UNIVERSITY

by

John Douglas MacFarlane — August, 1961

ABSTRACT

Problem: The purpose of the study was to determine whether there were any significant differences in achievement for each of the first two years of higher education among three groups of bright students from the same high school where, during the Grade Eleven year, one of these groups received enrichment in the form of an extra subject; another received enrichment in the form of extra depth to the regular program, and the third group, serving as a control, received no special training.

The subjects of the experiment were one hundred students all of whom were in Grade Eleven in Kelvin High School, Winnipeg, Manitoba, during the academic year, 1957-58, and most of whom entered the University of Manitoba after graduation from Grade Eleven.

Method: The class taking an extra subject consisted of thirty-one students and was known as the Augmented Group. The class probing more deeply into the subjects of the regular program had an enrolment of thirty-eight, and was called the Enriched Group. The Control Group consisted of thirty-one bright students in various regular classes.

During the academic year, 1958-59, about one-quarter of each group, twenty-five students in all, took Grade Twelve, mainly at Kelvin. Sixty-six students, approximately two-thirds of each group, enrolled in First Year at the University of Manitoba. By the end of Second Year, in 1960, about eighty-five per cent of each of the special groups remained, but the Control Group was down to half of its original size.

Achievement was measured by means of final examination results. The Department of Education and the University made available normative data consisting of mean and standard deviation for each examination, which permitted the conversion of marks to Z-scores, a statistical device that put all examination results on the same scale with equal units of measurement. These Z-scores were averaged, both for each student and for each group, in Grade Twelve, in First Year, and in Second Year. Similar data had been found for Grade Ten in order to establish pre-treatment status, and for Grade Eleven, to measure immediate post-treatment effect.

Three groups at each of three levels provided nine mean Z-scores representing average achievement. Taking the groups in pairs at each level, the null hypothesis of the equality of these means was tested. F-tests were used to show homogeneity of variances, and these were

followed by t-tests in order to determine the significance of the differences in the mean Z-scores.

The t-tests were repeated on pre-treatment, immediate post-treatment, and follow-up data on limited groups, which were composed only of students who had completed Second Year.

Findings: The limited groups, totalling seventy-four students, produced approximately the same results as the complete groups, but with the advantage of initial equality of achievement. On the basis of these limited groups, then, there was equality of achievement in Grade Ten, before treatment. The groups were again equal in mean achievement three years later, in Second Year. During the intervening two years, each of the special groups exhibited some superiority: the Augmented in Grades Eleven and Twelve, the Enriched in First Year.

The investigation of similar studies revealed that enrichment in high school produced superior results in high school, but not at college.

Conclusions:

1. No consistent pattern of superiority for enrichment in general, nor for either form of enrichment tested in this experiment, is evident.
2. The findings of several other studies have been verified; enrichment for bright students can produce superior results in high school, but not, in the long run, at university.
3. The immediate benefits in high school of enrichment by an extra subject did not carry over to university.
4. The Control Group did not compare well with the other two. At no time did it exhibit any significant superiority in achievement: it was either inferior or equal. Its drop-out rate at university was much higher than that of the other groups.
5. Enrichment by added depth to the regular program, which appeared to be not very successful in high school, did produce superior results in the first year at University.

A STUDY OF THE BENDER VISUAL-MOTOR GESTALT TEST IN RELATION TO READING DIFFICULTIES

by

Marjorie Jean McLean — September, 1961

ABSTRACT

Problem: The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between visual-perceptual development, as measured by the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test, and reading ability of primary school children. The problem was to assess the findings from the Bender-Gestalt Test in relation to reading achievement, and to evaluate the effectiveness of the test in detecting and predicting reading difficulties.

Method: Four null hypotheses were set up as follows:

1. There is no significant difference between scores on the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test for Grade One children of normal intelligence with reading difficulties and scores of a group comparable in age and intelligence who are successful in reading.
2. (a) There is no significant correlation between scores on the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test and reading scores for good readers.
(b) There is no significant correlation between scores on the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test and reading scores for poor readers.
3. (a) There is no significant difference in the numbers of boys and of girls found in the group of successful readers.
(b) There is no significant difference in the numbers of boys and of girls found in the group of unsuccessful readers.
4. (a) There is no significant difference between Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt scores for boys and for girls in the group of successful readers.
(b) There is no significant difference between Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt scores for boys and for girls in the group of unsuccessful readers.

Population and Sample: The study was based on the Bender-Gestalt records of fifty Grade One children drawn from the total Grade One population (178 children) of three schools in adjacent areas, similar in socio-economic development, in the School Division of Winnipeg. The age range 6-7, to 7-6, and I.Q. range 101 to 115 were established in order to control variation.

The total group (178) was given the Gates Primary Reading Test of Word Recognition, and from the results a median score was obtained. Within the age and I.Q. range established, the top twenty-five readers who were at least five points above the median, and the bottom twenty-five who were at least five points below the median, were selected.

In order to ensure that the groups were similar in age and intelligence, and different in reading ability, the differences between each category were tested statistically. There were no differences for age and intelligence, but differences significant at the .01 level were obtained for reading.

The Bender-Gestalt records of the selected groups were quantified according to the Pascal and Suttell method,¹ and these scores were tabulated.

Results: Hypothesis 1.—This was rejected at the .01 level, since significant differences occurred between the Bender-Gestalt records of good and of poor readers.

Hypothesis 2.—(a) The null hypothesis was accepted, as the correlation between Bender-Gestalt and reading scores for good readers could have arisen from chance.

¹ G. R. Pascal and B. Suttell, *The Bender-Gestalt Test, Quantification and Validity for Adults*. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1951.

(b) The null hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level, as a significant correlation between Bender-Gestalt and Reading Scores was obtained for poor readers.

Hypothesis 3.—(a) Since significantly more girls than boys were found in the group of successful readers, the null hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level.

(b) Since significantly more boys than girls were found in the group of unsuccessful readers, the null hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level.

Hypothesis 4. Both parts of the null hypothesis were accepted since the differences in Bender-Gestalt performance for boys and for girls within the groups were not significant.

Analysis of Reactions to Individual Designs in the Bender-Gestalt Test

In addition to testing the hypothesis, the Bender-Gestalt records were tested for single design differences. Differences significant at the .01 level occurred in Designs 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, and 8 between good and poor readers.

Within the designs, each scorable deviation was measured in terms of its discriminating power for good and poor readers. Significant at the .01 level were: asymmetry in Design 3, tremor in Design 4, work-over in Design 5, curve extra in Design 6, double line and distortion in Design 7, and angles missing in Design 8.

Critical Score: By inspection, a critical score of 75 was obtained from the Bender-Gestalt raw scores. This was the score above which most

of the good readers rose and below which most of the poor readers fell. For this sample, the score misclassified three good readers or 12% of the group, and five of the poor readers or 20%. That is, eight children in the sample of fifty were misplaced when the critical score was used.

Statistical Analysis: The techniques used in this study included: the Mann-Whitney U test, the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, tests to determine the significance of differences between two uncorrelated percentages, and tests to determine the significance of the differences between means in two small independent samples.

Conclusions: The findings indicated that the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test was effective in differentiating between good and poor readers for the sample selected. The total Bender-Gestalt scores showed significant differences between the groups, as did single design, and specific types of deviations. However, it was noted that some good readers could give inadequate Bender-Gestalt responses, and poor readers could give satisfactory responses. The conclusions were that the Bender Visual-Motor Gestalt Test would be most effective in a battery of diagnostic tests, although considerable weight could be given to the findings, especially in the age range 6-7 to 7-6.

Further testing with different ranges of age and intelligence would be desirable for a more complete evaluation of the test.

The implications for education are concerned with the need for early identification of children with learning problems, and adequate program planning.

THE INFLUENCE OF PURULENT MENINGITIS
ON MENTAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN
AS DETERMINED BY PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS
AND SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT

by

William Nazeravich — April, 1961

ABSTRACT

Background: This thesis is one part of a follow-up study of forty-three school children who had been treated for purulent meningitis at the Children's Hospital of Winnipeg, during the period of 1952-1956, inclusive. The research project was a combined effort of the Departments of Pediatrics, Otolaryngology, Psychiatry, Electroencephalography, Psychology, and Education. The part of the project reported in this thesis is the psychological and educational assessment of the meningitis children.

Purpose: The purpose of the study was to learn more about the effects of purulent meningitis on the mental development and academic achievement of children and to find out what problems might be anticipated. Therefore, the investigation was made with reference to: (1) possible intellectual impairment of post-meningitis children as demonstrated by psychological tests, and (2) classroom behavior and learning as rated by teachers.

Variables: Five variables were considered in the assessment of mental abilities. It was believed that children treated for meningitis would show impairment in:

- (a) intellectual development
- (b) figure-ground reactions in the visual perceptual field
- (c) visuomotor integration
- (d) sensory motor development
- (e) development of non-verbal abilities.

Three variables were considered in the assessment of classroom behavior and learning. It was believed that children treated for meningitis would present:

- (a) a typical brain-injured behavior pattern
- (b) special oral reading problems
- (c) special writing problems.

The null hypothesis was used to test these variables.

The non-meningitis children were chosen in such a way as to approximate the chronological age, sex, grade, and general level of ability of the meningitis children.

Findings: Children with a history of meningitis were found to experience more difficulty than non-meningitis children in (1) the reproduction of visually perceived stimuli, indicating a degree of impairment in visuomotor integration, and (2) the drawing of human figures, suggesting a faulty body concept or perception.

The non-verbal abilities of post-meningitis children were found to be lower in comparison to their general level of ability as assessed by the Binet test. About one-third of the subjects obtained WISC Performance scores which were ten or more IQ points below the Binet scores, whereas only three children obtained significantly higher WISC scores. However, the disparity between these two levels of functioning was found to be not significant for the group as a whole.

Differences between the meningitis children and the Binet standard population with respect to mean IQ's were not significant. Although the incidence of retardation for the meningitis group was higher than is normally expected, the distribution of scores did not depart significantly from normality. All of the subnormal children had physical defects such as impaired speech and hearing. One showed a deficiency in the neuro-motor system.

No differences were demonstrated between the meningitis and non-meningitis children in the visual perceptual field. The meningitis children reacted mainly to foreground detail, suggesting normal visual perception.

Finally, the post-meningitis children were observed to be rated by teachers as having slightly more difficulties in areas of reading and writing than other children in the classroom, but these differences were not significant. In terms of behavior, children treated for meningitis displayed fewer behavior characteristics common to brain-injured children than others in the classroom. This reversal from expectations was not significant.

A COMPARATIVE SURVEY OF VOCATIONAL TYPEWRITING IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF CANADA

by

Alberta Lucille Pybus — March, 1961

ABSTRACT

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to survey vocational typewriting, including office practice, in the various provinces of Canada under the headings of general information, objectives, content, final measurement and the link between teachers and employers; to make a comparison from province to province and to make a further comparison with findings and recommendations in recent literature.

Sources of Data: Information was obtained from a questionnaire sent to the director of curriculum in each province, from letters from directors of curriculum, from course outlines in each province, from prescribed texts, and from departmental examinations where such could be obtained. The description of the course in each province was submitted to the director of curriculum, for correction of any possible misinterpretations or errors as to facts, before being incorporated into the report.

Conclusions: It was concluded that, regarding length of course, combination of typewriting and office practice, objectives, and content, there was considerable similarity in the various provinces and between the provinces and recommendations from the literature. In the fields of measurement and the link between teachers and employers, however, while there was considerable similarity among the provinces, there was considerable dissimilarity with recommendations in the literature.

Specifically, these conclusions were reached: (1) that the 3-year course is appropriate, especially if some applied typing and transcription is combined with typing, (2) that applied typewriting, or practice in solving typing problems should be, and is, part of the course, (3) that the major objective whether stated or implied, should be, and is, to develop sufficient skill for students to secure and hold beginning office positions, and to advance in these positions, (4) that in regard to office practice, objectives and measurement tend to stress factual knowledge and typewriting skill rather than understandings and personal development, (5) that weaknesses in the field of personal development may be due to lack of time devoted to this portion of the course, and to the difficulty of measurement in this area, (6) that measurement tends to cling to scores in net words per minute on straight-copy typing rather than to suggestions from research that measurement of vocational typewriting should be in terms of mailable words per minute in the various areas of production typewriting, or in mailable items completed on an hourly basis, (7) that where final measurement is made in terms of words per minute for certain areas of typewriting or items completed

per hour, only typing skill is measured, whereas the literature indicates that as many as possible of the non-typing but associated activities ought to be measured by being included in the timing period, (8) that a certain link between teachers and employers is evidenced by the existence of advisory committees whose membership includes both teachers and employers, (9) that the existence of commercial teachers' associations forms a basis for co-operation with associations of employers such as NOMA and Personnel Associations.

Recommendations: The study gave rise to these recommendations: (1) that more attention should be given to personality development in most provinces, (2) that information concerning films and film strips should be included in course outlines, (3) that consideration should be given to instituting a co-operative school and office experience program, and (4) that teachers and employers should work together to develop examinations which would give scores which would be meaningful and useful to both teachers and employers. Such examinations should give not just one score but separate scores in mailable words per minute for such areas of typewriting as letters with carbon copies and envelopes, tabulations with carbon copies, business forms and fill-ins with carbon copies where required, and should give point scores on understanding of purposes and procedures of office practice and point scores on personal characteristics. The separate scores would enable teachers to note individual strengths and weaknesses, and assist teachers in providing remedial assistance to students, and would enable employers to select the most suitable applicant for a particular position.

SPECIAL SUMMER CLASS 1961

Alford, Charles
 Alisch, Gerhard
 Allard, Noel
 Anderson, Paul H.
 Annason, David
 Bachman, Mrs. Marion
 Balcaen, Huebert
 Banville, Kathleen
 Bender, Clarence
 Brown, James N.
 Buggey, Dennis W.
 Burland, William R.
 Butler, Richard
 Cantelon, Donna
 Chwaluk, Nadia M.
 Ciekiewicz, Allan
 Clark, Alexander
 Cote, Monique
 Cowling, Gayda
 Coyle, Suzanne
 Crawford, Roy E.
 Deacove, Mrs. Ruth
 DeCruyendere, John
 Desilets, Mrs. Anna
 Domanski, Mrs. Jadwiga
 Domytrak, Alexander
 Dookeran, Ivan A.
 Dougall, Gerald F.
 Draper, Anthony C.
 Dubreuil, Annette
 Dueck, William
 Emond, Maurice
 Enns, Theodore D.
 Epp, Arthur

Foley, Lewis J.
 Fontaine, Albert
 Friesen, Henry I.
 Fritz, Mrs. Grace
 Gillespie, Mrs. Myrna
 Glowacki, Mrs. Lydia
 Goring, Frances
 Gunson, Mrs. Marjorie
 Hanna, Gerald
 Hoffman, Emanuel
 Hofley, John
 Hurdal, Ronald
 Jackson, James A.
 Kaye, Barbara
 Klassen, Benjamin
 Kowalik, Metro
 Kyritz, Ralf
 Lauferweiler, Lenore
 Lawrence, Richard
 Lawrence, Mrs. Shirley
 LeBlanc, Lorraine
 Letkeman, Peter
 Loewen, Harry
 Loveridge, Glen
 Manchur, William
 Manteuffel, A.
 Miklovich, Frances
 Milligan, Joyce
 Mills, Mrs. Martha
 Mitchell, Terence
 Mohammed, Zanoool
 Morton, Henry A.
 Park, Marnie
 Parsons, Valerie J.

Partridge, James
 Patience, Thelma
 Paulley, Diane M.
 Pawluk, Kenneth
 Penner, Mildred V.
 Peters, Abe
 Rattai, Gerald
 Raymer, Gordon
 Redekop, Henry
 Reimer, Ronald G.
 Robinson, Roosevelt
 Roussell, Mrs. Olga
 Rystephaniuk, Sylvia
 Schroeder, Helene
 Schroeder, Lothar
 Shewchuk, John
 Sigurdson, Heather
 Simkulak, Louis R.
 Sinclair, Robert
 Spivak, Roy
 Stammen, Mrs. Muriel
 Suderman, Rita
 Thompson, Lynne
 Toews, Elfrieda
 Tonnellier, Gaston
 Wall, Siegfried
 Whiteside, Judith
 Whitley, Elva
 Wiebe, Rudy
 Wiebe, William
 Wilkes, John D.
 Wozny, Valentine
 Wright, Diane

CLASS OF 1961-62

Bachynski, Boris
 Baluta, John
 Birrell, Fred
 Bleeks, Philip
 Bond, Carol
 Boughner, Richard
 Braun, John
 Buller, Edward
 Bulow, Robert
 Butland, Judy
 Cheyne, Lorna
 Chudley, Les
 Coleman, Marvyn
 Conner, Elaine
 Conner, Lois
 Cooper, Bruce
 Cowling, Douglas
 Cunningham, Lynne
 Currie, Gladys
 Deane, Denise
 Dick, Sandra

Holt, Jerry
 Hyslop, Grant
 Johnson, Ernest
 Johnson, Blanche
 Jones, B. Gail
 Kachor, Lesia
 Keddie, David
 Ketchen, Gloria
 Klatt, Edward
 Kliewer, Albert
 Lee, Betty
 Lukey, Claudette
 Lysecki, Elaine
 McDonell, David
 Malcolm, Robert
 Marcuk, Leo
 Martin, Gary C.
 Matiation, Leonard
 Mayda, Frank
 Meidler, Sandra
 Melman, Bernard

Peloquin, Emile
 Penner, Patricia
 Peters, Herbert
 Picyk, Peter
 Reimer, Albert
 Rubin, Diane
 Russell, James
 Ryan, James
 Sarson, Mrs. Barbara
 Schoenherr, Mrs. Louise
 Simmons, Rozanne
 Shabbits, Marie
 Shaw, Winona M.
 Shewchuk, Marlene
 Skafffeld, Ronald
 Slawinski, Mildred
 Smith, Brenda
 Stewart, Nan
 Strong, Barbara
 Swan, William
 Thompson, Edith

Drabiniasty, Diana
 Duprey, Donald
 Duravetz, John
 Farlinger, Eveline
 Fields, Marilyn
 Forbes, Doreen
 Foster, James
 Fu, Hwa Tee
 Gibson, James
 Gingera, Orest
 Gushe, Margaret
 Hay, Victor

Mirochnik, Arnold
 Millette, Mrs. Hebe
 Moonan, Lintie
 Morris, Donald
 Munro, Donald
 Murray, Dona
 Murray, Gilbert
 Nakoneshny, Walter
 Neelin, Jean
 Osterman, Ernest
 Parsons, Ronald
 Pearlman, Bonnie

Thompson, David
 Thompson, Marilyn
 Tutiah, Mrs. Marvis
 Uzwyshyn, Evhan
 Walters, Evelyn
 Watson, Linda
 Wegner, Charles
 Wilson, James
 Wilton, Robert
 Yeo, Margaret
 Yerex, Elton

Summer School Time Table

Education Courses — 1962

8:30 - 10:15

Ed. 501:	<i>Advanced Educational Psychology</i>	- - -	Prof. C. J. Robson Head, Dept. of Psychology, United College
Ed. 503:	<i>Mental Health</i>	- - - - -	Dr. J. L. Asselstine Director, Child Guidance Clinic of Greater Winnipeg
Ed. 515:	<i>The Teaching of English—Secondary</i> (limited registration)	- - - - -	Prof. G. L. Brodersen Prof. of English and Assistant Dean of Arts and Science, U of M.
Ed. 516:	<i>The Teaching of Social Studies—Secondary</i>	-	Prof. C. J. Jaenen History Dept., United College
Ed. 702:	<i>Philosophy of Education</i>	- - - - -	Prof. W. J. Huggett Philosophy Dept. U of M.
Ed. 731:	<i>School Organization and Administration</i>	- -	Dr. W. C. Lorimer Superintendent of Schools, Winnipeg.

10:30 - 12:15

Ed. 514:	<i>Education of Gifted Children</i> (limited registration)	-	Dr. Edna Oswalt Westminster College, Wilmington, Penn.
Ed. 519:	<i>The Teaching of French—Secondary</i>	- - -	Mr. John Burnie Co-ordinator of French Instruction, Forest Hill School, Toronto.
Ed. 532:	<i>The Teaching of German—Secondary</i>	- -	Prof. C. H. Cardinal German Dept. U. of M.
Ed. 539:	<i>Adult Education</i>	- - - - -	Prof. A. S. R. Tweedie Head, Dept. of Adult Edu- cation and Extension, U of M.
Ed. 541:	<i>Education of Mentally Handicapped Children</i> (limited registration)	- - - - -	Dr. Margaret Hudson Watsonville, California.
Ed. 723:	<i>Educational Sociology</i>	- - - - -	Mr. Theodore Tadros Florida Military College, De Land, Florida.

1:45 - 3:30

Ed. 504:	<i>Mental Testing</i>	- - - - -	Prof. C. J. Robson Head Dept. of Psychology, United College.
Ed. 523:	<i>The Teaching of Physical Education—</i> <i>Secondary</i>	- - - - -	Prof. W. F. R. Kennedy Head, Dept. of Physical Education, U of M.
Ed. 537:	<i>The Teaching of Physical Education—Elementary</i>	-	Mrs. K. Kennedy Supervisor of Physical Educa- tion, Seven Oaks School Division.

